

1 IAN SIMMONS (admitted *pro hac vice*)
isimmons@omm.com
2 MATT SCHOCK (admitted *pro hac vice*)
mschock@omm.com
3 O'MELVENY & MYERS LLP
1625 Eye Street, NW
4 Washington, DC 20006
T: +1-202-383-5300
5 F: +1-202-383-5414

6 ANNA T. PLETCHER (Bar #239730)
7 apletcher@omm.com
8 O'MELVENY & MYERS LLP
9 Two Embarcadero Center
28th Floor
San Francisco, CA 94111-3823
T: +1-415-984-8700
F: +1-415-984-8701

11 *Attorneys for Amici Curiae*
12 *Fair Standards Alliance*

**UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
NORTHERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA**

14 || INTEL CORPORATION and APPLE INC.,

Case No. 3:19-cv-07651-EMC

15 || Plaintiffs.

**BRIEF FOR AMICI CURIAE FAIR
STANDARDS ALLIANCE IN
SUPPORT OF PLAINTIFFS'
OPPOSITION TO DEFENDANTS'
MOTION TO DISMISS AND STRIK
PLAINTIFFS' AMENDED
COMPLAINT**

10

17 FORTRESS INVESTMENT GROUP LLC,
18 FORTRESS CREDIT CO. LLC, UNILOC
2017 LLC, UNILOC USA, INC., UNILOC
19 LUXEMBOURG S.A.R.L., VLSI
TECHNOLOGY LLC, INVIT SPE LLC,
INVENTERGY GLOBAL, INC., IXI IP, LLC,
20 and SEVEN NETWORKS, LLC,

Hon. Edward M. Chen

Date: December 17, 2020

Date: December 1,
Time: 1:30 p.m.

21 Defendants.

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1 **I. STATEMENT OF INTEREST¹**

2 *Amicus curiae* Fair Standards Alliance a.s.b.l. (“FSA”) respectfully submits this brief in
 3 support of Plaintiffs’ opposition to Defendants’ joint motion to dismiss and to strike Plaintiffs’
 4 Amended Complaint (“AC”). FSA is a non-profit association of companies dedicated to
 5 promoting a transparent and sustainable standard essential patent (“SEP”) licensing framework
 6 that fosters creativity, innovation, and job creation while preventing abusive licensing practices
 7 that harm industry and consumers. This case implicates important antitrust issues of significance
 8 to all patents, including SEPs. Although FSA takes no position on the ultimate merits of the case,
 9 it believes the AC states a claim under the antitrust laws and raises serious questions of particular
 10 importance to the patent licensing and innovation ecosystem that may be meaningfully informed
 11 by discovery. Accordingly, FSA respectfully urges the Court to deny Defendants’ motion and
 12 permit the case to proceed.

13 FSA’s constituents have strong interests in procompetitive developments to the patent
 14 licensing and innovation ecosystem. Its members range from small and medium-sized enterprises
 15 to multinational corporations throughout a variety of industries, including automotive, telecom,
 16 energy, broadcasting, semiconductor, and communications infrastructure. Annually, FSA
 17 members’ collective revenue is about \$2 trillion, and in aggregate they spend more than \$160
 18 billion on research and development and innovation. FSA members are innovators that hold an
 19 extensive portfolio of patents, including SEPs, and develop a broad range of inventive products
 20 and services. FSA members employ more than three million people worldwide.

21 SEPs cover important standard-implementing components in many of FSA’s members’
 22 products. FSA seeks to ensure that SEPs are licensed on fair, reasonable, and non-discriminatory
 23 (“FRAND”) terms, and that SEP royalties reflect the value of the underlying inventions, and not
 24 the exclusivity associated with inclusion in a technology standard or aggregation with other

25
 26 ¹ Plaintiffs’ counsel consents to the filing of this brief. Defendants’ counsel requested to review
 27 an advance copy of this brief, which we did not agree to provide. Defendants’ counsel thus do
 28 not consent to the filing of this brief. FSA submits this brief on its own accord. The positions
 and statements herein do not necessarily reflect the corporate positions of FSA’s individual
 members.

1 intellectual property. Because FRAND terms generally guarantee licenses to all comers, FSA
 2 believes that, although SEP infringement litigation is sometimes inevitable, it can generally be
 3 avoided when patent owners comply with their FRAND obligations. FSA discourages improper
 4 uses of SEP exclusivity, including unfair demands for supracompetitive royalties and repetitive,
 5 *seriatim* infringement litigation to coerce compliance with those demands, based on, for example,
 6 the costs of litigation or the threat of market exclusion. A collection of FSA's position papers on
 7 these and other issues is available on FSA's website.²

8 FSA has provided analysis as amicus curiae in other important SEP-related cases,
 9 including *TCL Communication Technology Holdings Ltd. v. Telefonaktiebolaget LM Ericsson*,
 10 No. 2018-1363 (Fed. Cir. 2019) and *FTC v. Qualcomm, Inc.*, No. 19-16122 (9th Cir. 2020); FSA
 11 previously submitted an amicus brief in this proceeding.

12 **II. STANDARD SETTING AND THE ANTITRUST LAWS**

13 Private standard setting and the antitrust laws lie at the heart of this case. These two
 14 regimes serve a common procompetitive purpose: to promote the dissemination of technology
 15 and resulting outputs with the aim of enhancing product utility and innovation. Where firms take
 16 advantage of standard setting through anticompetitive acts—by, for example, levying
 17 unreasonable prices, refusing to license, or tying products together—the antitrust laws provide
 18 redress to parties injured by those acts.

19 Courts recognize that “[t]he primary goal of antitrust law is to maximize consumer
 20 welfare by promoting competition among firms,” and that “[s]tandard setting advances this goal
 21 on several levels.” *Broadcom Corp. v. Qualcomm Inc.*, 501 F.3d 297, 308 (3d Cir. 2007)
 22 (internal citations omitted). Indeed, “standards promulgated by standard-setting organizations
 23 can be flush with ‘significant procompetitive advantages.’” *N. Am. Soccer League, LLC v. United*
24 States Soccer Fed’n, Inc., 883 F.3d 32, 43 (2d Cir. 2018) (quoting *Allied Tube & Conduit Corp.*
25 v. Indian Head, Inc., 486 U.S. 492, 501 (1988)). These advantages include “enlarging the overall
 26 consumer market,” “enhancing competition among suppliers,” “permit[ting] firms to spread the
 27 costs of research and development across a greater number of consumers, resulting in lower per-

28 ² Fair Standards Alliance, Publications, <https://fair-standards.org/publications/>.

1 unit prices,” and allowing implementers to “readily make an objective comparison between
 2 competing technologies, patent positions, and licensing terms before an industry becomes locked
 3 in to a standard.” *Broadcom Corp.*, 501 F.3d at 308–09. Standard setting can also reduce costs
 4 by “promot[ing] interoperability of different devices through the use of the same protocol,” *TCL*
 5 *Communication Technology Holdings Ltd. v. Telefonaktiebolaget LM Ericsson*, 943 F.3d 1360,
 6 1364 (Fed. Cir. 2019), and empowering “substitution and price competition [to] restrain a
 7 potential monopolist from profitably raising prices,” *United States v. Anthem, Inc.*, 236 F. Supp.
 8 3d 171, 198 (D.D.C. 2017), *aff’d*, 855 F.3d 345 (DC Cir. 2017).

9 In many cases, standard setting’s core objective is to strike a bargain that harmonizes with
 10 antitrust principles. For one thing, standard setting generates regimes that cover some patents but
 11 not others, creating valuable exclusivity by limiting available substitutes. For another, standard
 12 setting based on FRAND obligations requires the holders of those covered patents—SEPs—to
 13 grant licenses to all comers on FRAND terms: they cannot, for example, price discriminate or
 14 take unjustified price increases, or arbitrarily refuse to deal. By combining exclusivity and
 15 licensing restrictions, standard setting works to promote a procompetitive balance, ensuring fair
 16 royalties for SEP licenses while also “safeguard[ing] against monopoly power,” *Broadcom Corp.*,
 17 501 F.3d at 314, making the SEP holder “promise it w[ill] allow competitors to ‘pass through the
 18 gates’ on FRAND terms,” *Research in Motion Ltd. v. Motorola, Inc.*, 644 F. Supp. 2d 788, 794
 19 (N.D. Tex. 2008) (“RIM”). When these functions of standard setting are honored, the results are
 20 almost certain to include enhanced output, quality products at competitive prices, and patent
 21 holders who are rewarded for their innovations.

22 Admittedly, standard setting is not without risk. Despite its potential to generate
 23 substantial economic benefits, standard setting “can be rife with opportunities for anticompetitive
 24 activity.” *Am. Soc’y of Mech. Eng’rs, Inc. v. Hydrolevel Corp.*, 456 U.S. 556, 571 (1982).
 25 Because “[a] standard, by definition, eliminates alternative technologies,” *Broadcom Corp.*, 501
 26 F.3d at 314, selecting an SEP for a standard confers “gatekeeper” power on the SEP holder. This
 27 power ostensibly allows an SEP holder to “to eliminate all competition, should it so desire.”
 28 *RIM*, 644 F. Supp. 2d at 794.

1 FRAND commitments also pose competitive risks. Although FRAND is “intended as a
 2 ‘bulwark’ against the unlawful accumulation of monopoly power that antitrust laws are designed
 3 to prevent,” *id.* at 795–96, FRAND commitments can be evaded or manipulated to extract
 4 supracompetitive prices through anticompetitive schemes, such as tying and exclusive dealing,
 5 *see, e.g., FTC v. Qualcomm, Inc.*, 411 F. Supp. 3d 658 (N.D. Cal. 2019), *rev’d in part on other*
 6 *grounds*, 969 F.3d 974 (9th Cir. 2020). Standard setting organizations (“SSOs”) seek to mitigate
 7 these risks **before** setting a standard by declining to “incorporate patented technology into a
 8 standard unless [they] can obtain a declaration from the patent holder agreeing to either license
 9 free of charge or on [F]RAND terms.” *Microsoft Corp. v. Motorola, Inc.*, 864 F. Supp. 2d 1023,
 10 1032 (W.D. Wash. 2012). As two leading scholars observe:

11 Put simply: without some checks, SEP holders could opportunistically engage in
 12 patent holdup, taking advantage of the fact that the firms and users adopting the
 13 standard become individually and collectively locked in to the standard over time.
 14 Of course, it is precisely this danger of *ex post* opportunism that motivates market
 participants and [SSOs] to require participants in the standard-setting process to
 make FRAND commitments in the first place.

15 A. Douglas Melamed & Carl Shapiro, *How Antitrust Law Can Make FRAND Commitments More*
 16 *Effective*, 127 YALE L. J. 2110, 2111 (2018) (“Melamed & Shapiro”); *see also* Herbert J.
 17 Hovenkamp, *FRAND and Antitrust*, Faculty Scholarship at Penn Law 2093 (2019)
 18 (“Hovenkamp”), at 6 (“*Ex ante*, a patent may offer one of many technological paths to a certain
 19 goal. However, *ex post*, after a standard has been adopted and others have developed their
 20 technologies in reliance, the range of acceptable alternatives can decrease dramatically.”).

21 As Professor Hovenkamp notes, few mechanisms exist to deter the abuse of exclusivity
 22 **after** a standard is decided and implementers coalesce around it. Put another way, once a
 23 standard is set, the only explicit restraint on an SEP holder’s anticompetitive conduct is a FRAND
 24 commitment: No FRAND, no restraint. If a patent assertion entity (“PAE”) or other enterprise
 25 insists on licensing SEPs in ways that ignore or circumvent FRAND—for instance, by
 26 “charg[ing] far more than the competitive prices for licenses and the value of the inventive
 27 contributions (if any) of the patents,” AC ¶ 11—antitrust concerns are likely to arise.

1 Other PAE actions may set off additional alarms. Patent aggregation and repetitive
 2 litigation, for example, should raise red flags: by deploying broad patent portfolios in voluminous
 3 and relentless infringement lawsuits (and ignoring FRAND obligations), PAEs force
 4 manufacturers (including FSA members) to fund “the extreme expense of litigation defense” or
 5 license the PAEs’ patents at inflated rates. *Id.* ¶ 30. Plaintiffs here allege that this is no choice at
 6 all, particularly where there is potential coordination among PAEs, *id.* ¶ 10, and PAEs may
 7 employ shell entities to obscure their identities and assets from litigation adversaries, *id.* ¶ 3. The
 8 web of aggregation, obfuscation, and repetitive litigation by the PAE alleged in the AC, if
 9 confirmed, would clearly “impos[e] a tax on the electronics industry that increases prices,
 10 decreases output, and ultimately harms consumers,” *id.* ¶ 10, and circumvent precisely the
 11 procompetitive goals that standard setting and the antitrust laws are designed to protect. *See*
 12 *Lotes Co. v. Hon Hai Precision Indus. Co.*, No. 12-cv-7465, 2013 WL 2099227, at *5 (S.D.N.Y.
 13 May 14, 2013) (“[C]onduct that undermines the procompetitive benefits of private standard
 14 setting may . . . be deemed anticompetitive under antitrust law.” (quotation omitted)), *aff’d*, 753
 15 F.3d 395 (2d Cir. 2014); Melamed & Shapiro at 2112–15.

16 Faced with the type of conduct alleged in the AC, many of FSA’s members, including
 17 small and medium-sized enterprises, face a no-win scenario: take the anticompetitive terms PAEs
 18 offer or defend against *seriatim* and cascading infringement claims at prohibitive cost. This
 19 alleged conduct is anathema to the policies underlying standard setting and the antitrust laws, and
 20 FSA supports efforts to discourage and rebuke it. Unduly pressuring innovative companies like
 21 FSA’s members harms not only those companies and their industries, but innovation more
 22 broadly. As companies consider entering industry areas where they may be exposed to aggressive
 23 coercion and insurmountable litigation expenses, they may balk, even if they believe they can
 24 provide superior technological solutions. This deterrence inures ultimately to the detriment of
 25 consumers that rely on innovation coming to the market. While FSA takes no position on the
 26 ultimate merits of the case, it believes the AC states a claim under the antitrust laws and raises
 27 issues that may be meaningfully informed by discovery, and respectfully urges the Court to deny
 28 Defendants’ motion and permit the case to proceed.

1 **III. THE COMPLAINT STATES A CLAIM UNDER THE ANTITRUST LAWS**

2 Under Section 1 of the Sherman Act, a plaintiff need only plead that a defendant entered
 3 into an agreement that unreasonably restrains trade in the relevant market, as determined by the
 4 rule of reason.³ *Leegin Creative Leather Prods., Inc. v. PSKS, Inc.*, 551 U.S. 877, 885–86 (2007).
 5 Under Section 7 of the Clayton Act, a plaintiff must plead that, “in any line of commerce,” a
 6 defendant acquired assets “where . . . the effect . . . may be substantially to lessen competition, or
 7 . . . tend[s] to create a monopoly.” 15 U.S.C. § 18.⁴

8 The AC pleads with sufficient specificity all of the elements needed to make out antitrust
 9 claims: (i) relevant markets; (ii) unlawful restraints, including agreements and asset acquisitions;
 10 and (iii) anticompetitive effects, or a substantial lessening of competition.

11 **A. The Relevant Markets Are Adequately Pledged**

12 Thorough relevant market analysis generally determines the scope of competition and
 13 potential market power in an antitrust case. But as this Court has previously held, “a ‘full-blown
 14 market analysis’ is not necessary where a plaintiff relies on direct evidence of anticompetitive
 15 effects, as opposed to indirect evidence of such.” Doc. 190 at 12 (*quoting Bhan v. NME Hosp.*,
 16 *Inc.*, 929 F.2d 1404, 1413 (9th Cir. 1991)). Where, as here, plaintiffs present significant and
 17 plausible evidence of actions taken to “extort supracompetitive royalties unrelated to the value (if
 18 any)” of the product in question, AC ¶ 48, that evidence “can obviate the need for an inquiry into
 19 market power, which is but a surrogate for detrimental effects,” Doc. 190 at 12 (*quoting FTC v.*
 20 *Indiana Fed’n of Dentists*, 476 U.S. 447, 460-61 (1986)). The plaintiffs’ market analysis,
 21 therefore, need only “show the rough contours of a relevant market, and show that the defendant
 22 commands a substantial share of the market.” Doc. 190 at 13 (*quoting Republic Tobacco Co. v.*
 23 *N. Atl. Trading Co.*, 381 F.3d 717, 737 (7th Cir. 2004)). It need not show “calculations of elusive
 24 market share figures.” *In re Comp. of Managerial, Prof'l & Tech. Emps. Antitrust Litig.*, No. 02-
 25 CV-2924 (GEB), 2008 WL 3887619, at *7 (D.N.J. Aug. 20, 2008). Rather, it should be sufficient

26 ³ “Under this rule, the factfinder weighs all of the circumstances of a case in deciding whether a
 27 restrictive practice should be prohibited as imposing an unreasonable restraint on competition.”
Continental T. V., Inc. v. GTE Sylvania Inc., 433 U.S. 36, 49 (1977).

28 ⁴ Plaintiffs also plead two claims under California’s unfair competition law; this brief focuses on
 the federal claims.

1 for plaintiffs to approximate the “outer boundaries of a product market” by identifying “the
 2 product itself and substitutes for it,” as foundational antitrust case law suggests. *See Brown Shoe*
 3 *Co. v. United States*, 370 U.S. 294, 325 (1962).

4 These market definition principles are particularly important when considering technology
 5 markets affected by standard setting, where patent essentiality and contract obligations (including
 6 FRAND commitments) create an overlapping relationship between market **definition** and market
 7 **power**. Both are created somewhat artificially by contours of the standard setting process. *See*
 8 *Hynix Semiconductor Inc. v. Rambus Inc.*, No. CV-00-20905 RMW, 2008 WL 73689, at *9 (N.D.
 9 Cal. Jan. 5, 2008) (“The purpose of standardization . . . is to pick one technology as a winner, and
 10 most likely to confer 100% of the market to that technology.”). Courts and commentators
 11 recognize that “creating a ‘bright-line’ market definition in innovative sectors of the economy is
 12 often difficult and can be counterproductive,” and that “market definition is least useful when
 13 market shares would not be strongly probative of market power or anticompetitive effect, while
 14 direct evidence as to market power or anticompetitive effect is available and convincing.” *Id.* at
 15 *4 (quoting Michael L. Katz & Howard A. Shelanski, *Mergers and Innovation*, 74 ANTITRUST
 16 L.J. 1, 33-34 (2007), & Jonathan B. Baker, *Market Definition: An Analytical Overview*, 74
 17 ANTITRUST L.J. 129, 131 (2007)). To the extent market definition illuminates anticompetitive
 18 conduct in markets like those the AC alleges, “bright-line” boundaries and exhaustive specifics
 19 are unlikely to have meaningful legal significance.

20 They are also unlikely to be discoverable, at least not without information on who controls
 21 the rights to the technology at issue—information that rests solely in the possession of the
 22 challenged party. But they need not be known at the very outset of litigation. Courts in this
 23 circuit and others have held that

24 [e]ven under the more rigid pleading standard of Federal Rule of Civil Procedure
 25 9, . . . the pleader is not required to allege facts that are peculiarly within the
 26 opposing party’s knowledge, and allegations based on information and belief may
 suffice, so long as the allegations are accompanied by a statement of facts upon
 which the belief is founded.

27 *Nayab v. Capital One Bank (USA)*, N.A., 942 F.3d 480 (9th Cir. 2019) (quotations omitted); *see*
 28 *also Arista Records, LLC v. Doe 3*, 604 F.3d 110, 120 (2d Cir. 2010) (“The *Twombly* plausibility

standard, which applies to all civil actions . . . does not prevent a plaintiff from pleading facts alleged upon information and belief where the facts are peculiarly within the possession and control of the defendant") (quotations omitted). Where a plaintiff's relevant market allegations have limited specificity because defendants have and will not disclose the information needed to fill them out, the plaintiff should not be required to show a market's precise boundaries—particularly where he has alleged harm to competition stemming from the defendant's refusal. Cf. *Intellectual Ventures I LLC v. Symantec Corp.*, No. 13-cv-440-LPS, 2014 WL 4773954, at *3 (D. Del. Sept. 24, 2014) (denying motion to dismiss where relevant market allegations were based in part on tying to "a large and undisclosed number of . . . patents" and holding that a relevant market analysis would "require additional factual information not in the record"); see also *Staley v. Gilead Scis., Inc.*, 446 F. Supp. 3d 578, 616 (N.D. Cal. 2020) (Chen, J.) ("[W]hat the appropriate product market is depends on what anticompetitive harm is being claimed.").

Plaintiffs here plead everything they need to assert a relevant market. They allege direct evidence of anticompetitive effects—inflate patent license royalties—based on purported "patent transfer agreements" that allowed the defendants "to aggregate substitute and complementary patents to eliminate competition existing when those patents were held by PAEs that were competing independently with one another and not under common Fortress control." AC ¶¶ 49-50. They also allege the "rough contours" of several relevant patent markets, defined according to "the function that competing technologies contained therein perform," Doc. 190 at 13; AC ¶ 126, as well as various substitute patents that ostensibly cover similar functions, many of which now sit under the defendants' control. See, e.g., AC ¶¶ 127-140 (describing the market for patents covering network-based voice messaging and highlighting six patents from that market that defendants control); id. ¶¶ 154-164 (describing the market for patents covering remote software updates, wherein defendants allegedly control at least four patents). They further allege that, by aggregating patents through private agreements and acquisitions, the defendants "obscure those patents from the market and reduce the availability of information" to licensees, making it impossible to determine the exact boundaries of the markets the plaintiffs allege. Id. ¶ 431. And they allege that the defendants' opaque relationship structure creates obstacles to identifying the

1 full scope of firms involved in the purported patent-aggregation enterprise. *See id.* ¶ 43 (alleging
 2 that “[a]fter aggregation, potential licensees lose the ability to decipher” ownership and
 3 availability of substitutes and noting the emergence of “mysterious patterns” connecting Fortress
 4 to a web of otherwise unaffiliated NPEs). These allegations, taken together, present a cogent
 5 relevant market theory that crosses the threshold “from conceivable to plausible.” *Bell Atl. Corp.*
 6 *v. Twombly*, 550 U.S. 544, 570 (2007).

7 **B. Unlawful Restraints Are Adequately Pledged**

8 Agreements and acquisitions that raise prices and reduce output pose serious threats to
 9 competition. Where an agreement or acquisition eliminates direct substitutes or incentives to
 10 offer lower prices, it is likely an unlawful restraint on competition. *See, e.g., United States v. E.I.*
 11 *du Pont de Nemours & Co.*, 351 U.S. 377, 394 (1956); *NCAA v. Bd. of Regents of Univ. of Okla.*,
 12 468 U.S. 85, 112 (1984).

13 Plaintiffs allege potentially anticompetitive acquisitions and agreements by and among the
 14 defendants. *See* AC ¶ 49 (alleging “[t]hat Fortress and its PAEs have repeatedly entered patent
 15 transfer agreements with no efficiency rationale and [that] those agreements have resulted in
 16 inflated royalties”). FSA believes these alleged agreements and acquisitions, if proven, would
 17 pose serious threats to competition and risk compromising FSA members’ capacity to assess the
 18 availability of essential technologies (and any substitutes) in the market. They would also inhibit
 19 FSA members’ ability to reach agreements on FRAND licensing fees to use those technologies.
 20 And, as explained below, the alleged agreements and acquisitions would pave the way for a
 21 continued exercise of market power through the threat and institution of waves of infringement
 22 litigation, forcing a no-win choice between inflated license fees and crushing litigation expenses.
 23 Agreements and acquisitions that contemplate these results risk harm to competition and should
 24 be subjected to antitrust scrutiny.

25 **C. Anticompetitive Effects and Substantial Lessening of Competition**

26 Campaigns of repetitive, *seriatim* patent infringement suits pose serious risks to
 27 competition by threatening to reduce output, stifle innovation and as the plaintiffs allege here,
 28 raise prices. These litigation campaigns are particularly concerning, where (again), as the

1 plaintiffs allege here, the contents of a PAE'S patent portfolio, coordination among PAEs, and
 2 other imperative facts are obscured by shell entities, non-disclosure agreements, litigation funding
 3 arrangements, and other cloaking devices. In the realm of SEPs, these litigious onslaughts
 4 undermine the commitments SEP holders make to SSOs to be transparent and fair in licensing
 5 their SEPs. Those commitments are vital to a well-functioning standard setting regime;
 6 undercutting them compromises the procompetitive goals that SSOs and industry organizations
 7 like FSA seek to promote. *See supra* § II. Where that undercutting occurs, supracompetitive
 8 licensing rates are likely to follow, and may be used to support allegations of anticompetitive
 9 effects stemming from improper use of market power.

10 1. *SSO Undertakings*

11 SSO commitments (also called “undertakings”) are obligations SEP holders make in
 12 exchange for inclusion in technology standards. As the plaintiffs here explain, one of the
 13 undertakings SSOs require their members to take on is the timely disclosure of intellectual
 14 property rights that a proposed standard purports to cover. *See AC ¶ 403* (The European
 15 Telecommunications Standards Institute (ETSI) requires its members to use “reasonable
 16 endeavours . . . to inform ETSI of ESSENTIAL [intellectual property rights] in a timely fashion,”
 17 especially if a member submits “a technical proposal for a STANDARD or TECHNICAL
 18 SPECIFICATION”). These disclosures are meant to reveal who controls the property rights that
 19 a standard may implicate—a vital threshold concern for an SSO when it is formulating and
 20 administering that standard.

21 But disclosure obligations are only part of the standard setting calculus. Once a standard
 22 is adopted, implementers begin to invest in efforts to incorporate it, effectively “locking-in” the
 23 technology the standard covers. *Id. ¶¶ 412, 414.* Lock-in creates market power: it increases
 24 demand for the standardized essential technology and decreases it for alternative nonessential
 25 technologies. *See Allied Tube*, 486 U.S. at 500. This is why a second set of undertakings—
 26 FRAND commitments—are so important: they mitigate the extent to which an SEP holder can
 27 use the market power it draws from standardization to charge supracompetitive prices. *See supra*
 28 § II, AC ¶ 398. From an antitrust-law perspective, these commitments represent an equitable and

1 procompetitive trade-off: in exchange for market power, an entity must agree to license its
 2 standardized technology to all comers on fair terms. *Cf.* Hovenkamp at 32–33 (“A FRAND
 3 obligation indicates that the patentee has made a prior voluntary commitment to share its
 4 technology on FRAND terms. In exchange it expects that others would rely on that commitment,
 5 designing their own technology around the expectation that FRAND-encumbered patents would
 6 be available to them for a FRAND royalty.”).

7 SSO participants generally support the FRAND regime and often agree voluntarily to
 8 grant SEP licenses on FRAND terms. These voluntary agreements help to promote widespread
 9 adoption of standardized technologies, which is, after all, the core objective of standardization.
 10 AC ¶ 406 (ETSI requires its members to submit “an irrevocable undertaking in writing that it is
 11 prepared to grant irrevocable licenses on [FRAND] terms and conditions under [essential
 12 intellectual property rights]”). If, for whatever reason, a participant who controls potentially
 13 essential technology rights refuses to commit to FRAND terms, SSOs generally try to incorporate
 14 “viable alternative technolog[ies]” whose providers are willing to license on FRAND terms. *See*
 15 *id.* ¶ 408 (ETSI obligation to incorporate technologies that will be licensed on FRAND terms).

16 2. *Undermining SSO Undertakings To Demand Supracompetitive Rates*

17 In order for standard setting and SSO undertakings to promote competition effectively, the
 18 undertakings need to be reliable, which means they need to run with the technology they concern.
 19 Courts have held (and SSOs have agreed) that an SEP holder’s commitments to an SSO carry the
 20 force of a contractual obligation. *In re Qualcomm Litig.*, No. 3:17-cv-108-GPC-MDD, 2019 WL
 21 7834768, at *1 (S.D. Cal. Mar. 20, 2019) (“The ‘FRAND commitment’ is a contractual obligation
 22 between the SEP holder and the SSO.”); *see also* AC ¶ 401 (ETSI Intellectual Property Rights
 23 Policy is of a “contractual nature”).⁵ Nevertheless, there are occasions where acquirers of SEPs
 24 seek to evade FRAND obligations, or take the position that transferring the SEP nullifies them.

25
 26 ⁵ Any potential licensee can seek to enforce these obligations as a third-party beneficiary. *See*
 27 *Apple, Inc. v. Motorola Mobility, Inc.*, 886 F. Supp. 2d 1061, 1085 (W.D. Wis. 2012) (“As a
 28 potential user of the standards at issue and a prospective licensee of essential patents, Apple is a
 third party beneficiary of the agreements between Motorola and [SSOs].”); *see also* Hovenkamp
 at 10 (“[T]he courts have had little difficulty concluding that participating members of the SSO
 are third-party beneficiaries of FRAND commitments.”) (collecting cases).

1 But those theories ignore SSO policies and long standing principles of contract law; FRAND
 2 commitments cannot be breached without consequence, and if a FRAND-encumbered SEP is
 3 transferred, the FRAND commitment should follow. *See, e.g.*, ETSI Rule of Procedure 6.1
 4 (“FRAND licensing undertakings made pursuant to Clause 6 shall be interpreted as encumbrances
 5 that bind all successors-in-interest.”); IEEE SA Standards Board Bylaws 6.2(b) (a FRAND
 6 commitment “is intended to be binding upon any and all assignees and transferees of any
 7 Essential Patent Claim covered by such [commitment]”).⁶ Actions attempting to circumvent
 8 these obligations are contract breaches. *See* Hovenkamp at 9 (“A firm’s violation of its FRAND
 9 commitment is very likely a breach of contract, as several decisions have held.”) (collecting
 10 cases). In appropriate circumstances like the SSO regime, a breach of contract can give rise to
 11 antitrust liability. *Id.* at 20-21.

12 According to the AC, this is precisely what the defendants are alleged to have done, and
 13 their actions have purportedly generated anticompetitive effects evidenced by supracompetitive
 14 (and in many cases, above-FRAND) licensing rates. *See generally* AC ¶¶ 394–427. Actions such
 15 as these frustrate the entire purpose of standard setting. As discussed above, the FRAND system
 16 depends on robust disclosure of essential property rights. But the “web of entities” alleged in the
 17 AC could blur that disclosure, *e.g.*, *id.* ¶ 10, making it difficult to discern who controls which
 18 patents (essential or otherwise) and to identify possible substitutes. Any effort to untangle this
 19 web of ownership and negotiate lower licensing fees incurs transaction costs. *Id.* ¶ 43–45. And
 20 even if the ownership landscape is eventually revealed, it may become apparent that patents once
 21 considered substitutes are now owned by the same entity, or an affiliated entity, with no incentive
 22 to compete on price. *Id.* ¶¶ 31–32, 37–40.

23 SEP holders need not explicitly demand inflated royalties above and beyond the actual
 24 value of the invention (the “hold-up value”). *Id.* ¶ 47; *see also supra* § II. Sometimes these
 25 demands are not, strictly speaking, for above-FRAND rates. Instead, they may obscure

26
 27 ⁶ *See also* Fair Standards Alliance, An Introduction (Nov. 12, 2015), <https://fair-standards.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/FSA-POSITION-PAPER-June2016.pdf> (warning that
 28 FRAND obligations should transfer with an SEP to “ensure that patent assertion entities are not utilized as mere proxies to obscure behaviour that seeks to get around FRAND commitments”).

1 supracompetitive pricing through bundling: that is, SEPs offered at FRAND rates but lumped
 2 together with other extraneous or overvalued patents at a total price that is far above market rates.
 3 Either way, once locked into essential technology covered by SEPs, implementers are left with no
 4 real choice—they must pay or negotiate inflated licensing fees or expend resources needlessly on
 5 legal action. *See* Compl. ¶ 430. An implementer could also choose to make the product without
 6 a license, but in that case, a patent infringement suit is almost sure to follow over the held-up
 7 SEP. Resolving this dispute unnecessarily depletes time and money to resolve an easy question:
 8 that the SEP holder was, in fact, subject to a FRAND commitment.

9 But the harms alleged here go far beyond the risk of fighting a single SEP-infringement
 10 suit. If an SEP owner engaging in hold-up has also aggregated a “stable” of other patents
 11 (essential or otherwise), *id.* ¶ 9, it can use these patents offensively to bring wave after wave of
 12 additional lawsuits.⁷ *See generally id.* ¶ 38. In other words, although a disagreement may
 13 originate with the licensing fee for Patent A (an SEP), a patent assertion entity (PAE) with a book
 14 of other patents can threaten to also bring lawsuits with respect to Patents B–Z (which the PAE
 15 claims, notwithstanding the facts, are infringed by the implementer’s product design). Even
 16 worse, if that PAE coordinates with other PAEs or a coordinating entity, the number of possibly
 17 “infringed” patents skyrockets—as does the number of possible lawsuits. *See e.g., id.* ¶ 29
 18 (“Fortress describes its investing approach as ‘making control-oriented investments in cash flow
 19 generating assets.’”). And with little transparency as to which entity owns or controls a given
 20 patent, implementers cannot predict which patents may be exercised against them or whether a
 21 PAE asserting litigation claims may be in cahoots with another PAE or patent-controlling entity.

22 No matter which of these avenues of anticompetitive conduct is pursued, SEP licensing
 23 costs end up exceeding FRAND rates, undermining innovation and the development and
 24 promulgation of next-generation technologies. The implementer either caves and pays a
 25 supracompetitive price, or invests significant legal fees into litigation to clarify its SEP rights.

26 ⁷ PAEs in possession of SEPs are not constrained by the same threat of retaliation or reputational
 27 harm as other SEP holders because PAEs do not supply their own products nor participate in
 28 SSOs. *See* AC ¶ 424. The same can be true for non-SEP holders. *Id.* ¶ 49. Without these
 constraints, there is nothing to stop an unchecked phalanx of lawsuits, unhindered by the
 externalities otherwise limiting abuse of the judicial process.

1 With these increased costs, implementers, including FSA members, must shift resources away
 2 from procompetitive endeavors—including research and development, higher efficiency
 3 technology, and talent retention efforts—that would increase output and innovation. *Id.* ¶¶ 41-42.
 4 These disincentives to act procompetitively are manifestly harmful to the market. *Id.* ¶ 47.

5 **D. Injury to Plaintiffs**

6 The AC adequately alleges injury resulting from the conduct described above. *E.g., id.* ¶
 7 437 (“Intel and Apple have spent millions of dollars to date on outside resources (including
 8 counsel, experts, and vendors) to defend against Fortress-backed demands and assertions.”); *id.*
 9 (explaining efforts undertaken to defend against Fortress-backed suits); *see also id.* ¶ 96 (“the
 10 Uniloc Defendants have suggested that they are entitled to between \$4.3 and \$6.8 billion in
 11 damages from just seven of its 25 cases against Apple”); *id.* ¶ 104 (“VLSI claims up to \$7.1
 12 billion in connection with eight patents in the VLSI California Action and multiple billions of
 13 dollars in damages in the VLSI Delaware Action.”).

14 **IV. PATENT HOLDERS’ REPRESENTATIONS ARE SUFFICIENT TO SHOW
 ESSENTIALITY**

15 As discussed above, one of the ways in which SEP owners can create competitive issues is
 16 by leveraging the essentiality of SEPs to extract supracompetitive prices. *See supra* § II.
 17 Importantly, essentiality⁸ need not be definitively established in order for this leverage to exist.
 18 Rather, it is the patent holder’s *representation* of essentiality that creates antitrust concerns,
 19 because that representation suggests that the relevant patent is encumbered by FRAND
 20 obligations, and should be licensed at FRAND rates. To the extent the plaintiffs’ theory of
 21 anticompetitive harm is based on the charging of supracompetitive rates (including above-
 22 FRAND rates for SEPs), plaintiffs may “simply allege that Defendants *claim to own SEPs*
 23 instead of alleging that Defendants own or control patents that *actually are SEPs*.” Doc. 190 at
 24 18 n.13 (emphasis added).

25 This reasoning comports with that of other courts in this circuit. For example, in *TCL*

27 ⁸ Evaluating essentiality is often the subject of debate, and in many cases, “the parties d[o] not
 28 agree on a single methodology to assess essentiality.” Robin Stitzing et al., *Over-Declaration of
 Standard Essential Patents and Determinants of Essentiality* 3 (2018),
https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2951617.

1 *Communications Technology Holdings Ltd v. Telefonaktiebolaget LM Ericsson*, No. SACV 14-
 2 00341 JVS (ANx), 2014 WL 12588293 (C.D. Cal. Sept. 30, 2014), the court rejected the
 3 argument that a plaintiff’s SEP-related allegations must concede the essentiality of the
 4 defendant’s patents in order to survive a motion to dismiss. The court noted that the defendant,
 5 Ericsson, had “represented that its patents are standard essential to ETSI and as such ha[d]
 6 obligated itself to offering FRAND terms for such patents.” *TCL*, 2014 WL 12588293, at *4.
 7 The court went on to hold that TCL’s allegations that Ericsson *represented* its ownership of SEPs
 8 were “sufficient to establish Ericsson’s FRAND obligations at the motion to dismiss stage.” *Id.*
 9 Finally, the court observed that there was “no reason why TCL cannot put forth the argument that
 10 [Ericsson’s] patents are not standard essential while reserving the right to pay the FRAND rate
 11 should the Court ultimately determine otherwise.” *Id.* In rejecting Ericsson’s argument, the court
 12 in *TCL* made clear that the anticompetitive risk associated with SEPs begins not with the
 13 perceptions of potential licensees, but with the breakdown of the commitments between an SSO
 14 and an SEP holder. *See Microsoft Mobile Inc. v. Interdigital, Inc.*, No. CV 15-723-RGA, 2016
 15 WL 1464545, at *1 (D. Del. Apr. 13, 2016) (“in the context of ‘a consensus-oriented private
 16 standard-setting environment,’ ‘a patent holder’s intentionally false promise to license essential
 17 proprietary technology on FRAND terms, . . . coupled with [a standard-setting organization’s]
 18 reliance on that promise when including the technology in a standard, and . . . the patent holder’s
 19 subsequent breach of that promise, is actionable anticompetitive conduct.’”) (*quoting Broadcom*,
 20 501 F.3d at 314).

21 **V. CONCLUSION**

22 Preventing patent abuse is particularly critical in today’s technology economy, as
 23 standardized technologies migrate from the telecommunications sector into hundreds of other
 24 industries. FSA members, comprising large and small companies and representing diverse
 25 industry verticals, support application of existing antitrust jurisprudence to prevent the types of
 26 patent abuses alleged in the AC. For the reasons set forth above, FSA respectfully requests the
 27 Court deny Defendants’ motion to dismiss.

28

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Respectfully submitted,

2 By: /s/ Anna T. Pletcher

3 ANNA T. PLETCHER (Bar #239730)
4 apletcher@omm.com
5 O'MELVENY & MYERS LLP
6 Two Embarcadero Center
7 28th Floor
8 San Francisco, CA 94111-3823
9 T: +1-415-984-8700
10 F: +1-415-984-8701

11 IAN SIMMONS (admitted *pro hac vice*)
12 isimmons@omm.com
13 MATT SCHOCK (admitted *pro hac vice*)
14 mschock@omm.com
15 O'MELVENY & MYERS LLP
16 1625 Eye Street, NW
17 Washington, DC 20006
18 T: +1-202-383-5300
19 F: +1-202-383-5414

20 *Attorneys for Amici Curiae*
21 *Fair Standards Alliance*

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CERTIFICATE OF SERVICE

I hereby certify that on this 27th day of October, 2020, I caused the foregoing document entitled Brief of Amici Curiae Fair Standards Alliance in Opposition to Defendants' Motion to Dismiss to be filed via the court's CM/ECF system, which shall send notice to the counsel of record for the parties.

Dated: October 27, 2020

BY: /s/ Anna T. Pletcher

Anna T. Pletcher (Bar #239730)
apletcher@omm.com
O'MELVENY & MYERS LLP
Two Embarcadero Center
28th Floor
San Francisco, CA 94111-3823
T: +1-415-984-8700
F: +1-415-984-8701

Ian Simmons (admitted *pro hac vice*)
isimmons@omm.com
Matt Schock (admitted *pro hac vice*)
mschock@omm.com
O'MELVENY & MYERS LLP
1625 Eye Street, NW
Washington, DC 20006
T: +1-202-383-5300
F: +1-202-383-5414

*Attorneys for Amici Curiae
Fair Standards Alliance*